

LATIN NOTES

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No. 5

MEETING VARYING ABILITY IN LATIN

An Outline Summary of Several Methods which Have Been Suggested or Tried

By LILLIAN B. LAWLER, University of Kansas

I. The Dalton Plan*

1. Whole school completely reorganized, and provided with "laboratories," or study rooms, for each subject, with the teacher of each subject in charge of his own laboratory.
2. Student confers with principal and chooses subjects.
3. Student signs a contract for either maximum or minimum assignment for one month in each subject, with the understanding that if he completes the assignment in less than that time he may go on to another or else work on some other subject; and if he takes longer, he will have to work harder or else get only proportional credit in that subject.
4. Classes meet for a short period, and the system is explained.
5. The student uses his whole morning every day for working in the laboratories, studying what he likes when he likes, and passing from one laboratory to another at pleasure, except that
 - a. If he gets far ahead in one subject, he is urged to drop it for a little while and work more on his weaker subjects.
 - b. If there is too big a crowd in one laboratory, some students may be requested to go to another.
6. The teachers remain in the laboratories all morning to explain, help, check work, etc.
7. In the afternoons, short classes are held for discussion, explanation, comparison, individual reports, etc.
8. Graphs record the achievement of the students, and the completion of a certain number of contracts carries credit for the course.

II. The Winnetka Plan*

1. Children are placed together in rooms, not according to grade or age, but rather as the judgment of teachers as to where they will fit best in their social reactions seems to dictate; changes are frequent.
2. Curriculum is broken up into very definite units of achievement called goals.
3. Complete diagnostic tests are used to determine whether the student has mastered the units, and, if not, just where his difficulties lie.
4. Self-instructive, self-corrective practice materials are used, written like a series of correspondence lessons; after a certain number of practice lessons have been completed, a test is given, which the

teacher corrects; if the test grade is low, the student repeats the practice.

5. Each student progresses at his own rate, and the bright child is allowed to go on with a minimal amount of practice work, while the slow child is kept on drill work.
6. A goal card is kept for each student.
7. Allowance is made for group activities, assemblies, short class periods, etc.

III. The Sectionizing Method

1. The plan:
 - a. Pupils entering school are given intelligence tests, which, with the rating of elementary school teachers, are used in sectionizing.
 - b. The sections are: accelerated, retarded, and normal.
 - c. Necessary shifts later are made on the basis of grades and the judgment of the teachers as to misplaced children.
 - d. Each type of class is advanced at its own speed; often in the case of a very slow class only proportional credit is given.
2. Difficulties:
 - a. Pupils and parents should not be aware of the basis of the sectionizing, or there will be jealousy and unpleasantness, as well as the appearance of both superiority and inferiority complexes.
 - b. Great care must be taken to see that proper shifts are made.
 - c. If teachers, also, are not shifted from year to year, the system may have a deadening effect on the teacher who has retarded classes.
 - d. It can be used only in a large school.

IV. The Contract Method

1. Part or all of the work is assigned by means of contracts, made for some definite period usually ranging from ten days to six weeks.
2. Contracts may be assignment contracts, enrichment contracts, or a combination of the two; in any case, there are usually three given at once, A, B, and C, each carrying the grade indicated, and B carrying more work than C, A than B. If the pupil completes no contract at all, he gets the next lower grade or a failure, depending on the circumstances.
3. If the student is slow, he is urged to try only contract C; if a little better, contract B; if very quick, contract A; but a slow student who is willing to work very hard may be allowed to try B or A conditionally.
4. The contracts are worked out both at school and at home, though they do not take the place of all class work; they are checked by the teacher when they are finished, are handed back to the student, and are returned corrected before the grade is recorded.

V. The Problem Method

1. In a card index file on the teacher's desk are kept cards, each bearing one problem; pupils have access

*For an exhaustive bibliography and account, see Part II of the Twenty-Fourth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education.

to this file during study periods, between classes, during the supervised study period of the Latin class, after school, etc.

2. A pupil must solve a minimal number of problems before he gets a grade for the month; pupils of high rank may solve more, and get extra credit for so doing.

3. Problems may be of two types:

a. Drill—to be recited orally but quietly to the teacher at the periods designated in 1.

b. Enriching—to be done outside and reported upon in class. These may be talks on certain phases of Roman life, interesting etymologies, original stories, charts, models, etc.

4. Difficulty—to find a suitable time for reporting. If the Latin teacher has a supervised study period, all is well; she should not load herself up too much with extra hours for this work.

VI. The Laboratory Method

1. The plan:

a. The teacher sets a certain task, such as the writing of prose sentences. She prepares a card for each pupil. The class works in the class period, each pupil raising his hand when he has finished one unit. The teacher goes to the pupils in turn, giving credit on the cards for all perfect work, and explaining errors individually. Only perfect work is counted. The completion of certain units gives an A, fewer B, etc. At the end of the laboratory unit, a test is given.

b. The teacher assigns, perhaps, the writing of an original story in Latin, using correctly certain given constructions. As each student finishes, he comes up with his story, and has errors explained.

c. The next day, errors are handed in corrected, and the teacher explains common errors to the class.

2. Advantages:

a. Time is saved—the teacher has no stack of papers to correct at night.

b. The pupils get individual attention.

c. The disciplinary problem is absolutely solved.

d. The students study harder to make a better grade, for the grading is absolutely objective, and the system is competitive.

e. It eliminates the common difficulty of parents' doing the child's work for him.

f. As it is used only occasionally, it does not require the reorganization of the school, as does the Dalton plan.

VII. The Grouping Method

1. Simplest form—permitting the brilliant students to go off by themselves into a corner of the room, or into an adjacent room, perhaps, and to work out as much advance translation as they can, while the slower members are drilled by the teacher. Towards the end of the period, the brilliant group returns and reports.

2. More complex form—the maximum and minimum assignment. On the basis of grades the previous month, the class is divided into a maximum and a minimum group. The former is given longer assignments and more enrichment material.

3. Dangers:

a. The teacher must keep an assignment book with great care, or she will have difficulty in recalling, e. g., just what an absent pupil has missed.

b. The pupils who need the most drill are getting less of it than those who need it least; but the slower ones are doing all they can.

c. Poor students may become sensitive, good students lazy, when they observe the distinction made.

d. If connected translation is being used, care must be taken that the slower pupils do not lose the thread of the story, if they have shorter assignments daily than the quicker ones.

VIII. Miscellaneous Devices for Incidental Work in Meeting Varying Ability

1. Turning the Latin period, every two weeks, into a club, in which, in general, the better students take part, looking up reports, etc. The stronger students are able to take the outside time for preparation, and the weaker students profit also by the result.

2. Preparing folders for reading for extra credit by good students. Take ordinary manila folders, and cut in two crosswise. On the inside, on one side, paste a typed Latin story from another book; on the other side, paste a typed vocabulary of the new words in the story. Have the student translate it to you, folding back the vocabulary so that he cannot see it when reciting.

3. Having slips on the desks when the students enter, each giving some task to be done at once: "Go to the board and decline *navis*"; "Open your book to page 76 and translate the supplementary exercise on paper"; "Correct what is being done at the board," etc. In this way each pupil is drilled in what he needs.

4. Having the better students edit a Latin newspaper every month.

5. Excusing from class review those who make above a certain average in a given series of quizzes and permitting them to read from books on the teacher's desk while the rest are drilled.

IX. General Comments and Cautions

1. Most of the methods that have been suggested for meeting varying ability require a larger amount of the teacher's time for proper administration and preparation than the ordinary class-room procedure. Many fine teachers, however, have felt that the results more than justified the time. Furthermore, many teachers have found that under these methods they had to give less time to office hours and outside helping of slow students than before. On the other hand, some of the methods, such as the laboratory prose method, actually require less time than the traditional method.

2. In striving to meet varying ability, the teacher should not merely make the quick student do more work than the others; this will sooner or later arouse resentment, and work counter to all the teacher hopes to achieve. Rivalry should be used, and some definite distinction given to the student in each group who improves most over *his own earlier record* in a given time. Standardized tests will help here. Even mention on an honor roll is a very worth-while distinction to a high school student. The doing of certain tasks should be regarded as a privilege—"Only those students who can finish Ex. 10 correctly may appear on the club program," etc.

3. Not only actual forms and syntax may be used in the contract, problem, or special privilege work. A large share of the work for stronger students should be enrichment material. They will be able to get both it and the forms in the time that the slower pupils put on forms alone. If their reports be oral, the slower pupils will profit, too. Here is the place to use many of our "interest devices," instead of dumping them indiscriminately upon a whole class, many of whom do not know their daily lessons.

4. All outside work given good pupils "for extra credit" should be appraised at a definite value, and the pupil should know exactly what he gains by each achievement. For example the teacher should not say, "All of you above 90% who read books and make models will get extra credit," but "All of you above 90% may raise your weekly grade 1% by doing any of the following" (with the items specifically listed), . . . "and no one may present more than three in one week."

5. The laboratory and other methods should not be begun too soon in the term, unless the school is using the Dalton, Winnetka, or sectionizing plans. The

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class should have plenty of chance to profit by class explanations, and should be allowed to work together until the teacher is sure of the relative abilities of the various members. Not until about four weeks after the opening of school should the new methods be begun.

THE GREATNESS OF ROME AS SEEN IN BOOK I OF VERGIL'S AENEID

A quotation from an article by ARTHUR L. KEITH, Professor of Greek at the University of South Dakota.

We are accustomed to think of the Aeneid as the best interpretation of imperial Rome that we have. So the Romans themselves regarded it. It is a veritable mine of material which may be used in illustrating the elements entering into all that contributed to the greatness of Rome. The youth of today need to know more of what really constituted this greatness. A retrospect may be thus provided that will aid their prospect in their own duties as American citizens. Naturally, we do not claim that with their limited experience they can grasp the fundamental meaning of the Aeneid so fully as when of maturer years, but that maturity will lose much of its opportunity unless they are early trained to interpret the thought and spirit and life that lie back of the printed page. No one denies their ability to appreciate in some substantial measure the deeper significance of an oration of Webster or Burke or to catch the suggestions and implications of a poem of Tennyson. I see no reason why the same standard should not be insisted upon when we come to Vergil, except in degree.

With these points in view let us pass rapidly through the first book of the Aeneid, noting in that limited field the phases that will, as I think, be comprehensible to the average high school student of Vergil.

The opening sentence is full of suggestions. First it expresses the poet's purpose and shows his point of view. At the very outset the poet carries us back to Troy, situated in the remote past and encircled in a halo of enchantment furnished by distance. From the mythical, heroic heights of Troy we are to comprehend the view of the empire stretching before us without goals and without seasons. But before the sentence closes it becomes apparent that the poet is not to magnify Troy for her own sake but that her offspring, Rome, a thousand years later may have the greater glory for such an origin. It is the *unde*, the whence, which the poet seems to emphasize, but the words a few lines below

hinc populum late regem belloque superbum venturum
show clearly that Vergil's real inspiration lies in the

Abanique patres atque altae moenia Romae.

Aside from the inspiration afforded by so exalted a point of view, we have here an illustration of the Roman attitude toward all beginnings, shown in every department of life. For the Romans more than for any other people it is true that well begun is half done. They even had a god of beginnings. More conspicuous, however, than this is the exhibition of the Roman respect for the past. This veneration for the past and its traditions directed their thoughts and purposes to an extent seldom elsewhere equaled. Imagine a poet of today who wishes to exalt the greatness of his country, choosing a viewpoint so remote.

These first lines teem with suggestions as to the nature of the story. The first word is *arma*. *Bellum* appears four times in the first twenty-three lines. Words are very frequent foreshadowing the trials and suffering involved in the story, as *fato profugus, iactatus, vi, saevae, iram*, and *passus* in the first five lines. These suggestions are maintained throughout the poem. The Roman ideal is attained through suffering:

Tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem.

Another important phase of Roman thought is indicated in these same lines and that is the close connection existing between the Roman political and the Roman religious life. Aeneas is not only to found a city but also to introduce the gods into Latium. These elements were closely associated in the Roman mind. So in the one person, Aeneas, we find the warrior, the wanderer, the founder, and the priest. Elsewhere in the first book we find similar indications. Aeneas informs his mother that he has saved the Penates from the enemy and is seeking a country. The concern of the gods with the fortunes of Aeneas is another indication in the same direction, as when Jupiter unfolds to Venus the great future of the Roman empire.

Already before leaving this opening sentence we have an indication of another idea prominent in all Roman thought, namely, that of fate or destiny. Five times in the first forty lines this idea recurs. Hardly a page will be free from the suggestion of this all-compelling force. In these days the emphasis lies wholly upon the freedom of the will, upon individual initiative. There is the widest possible difference between the two attitudes. Perhaps we have gone too far in our exaltation of the individual. The events of recent years suggest that we may yet be compelled to acknowledge the insufficiency of the individual motives and strivings when confronted by great world forces long ignored. We may be compelled to forsake our own plot of ground and become enmeshed in obligations pertaining to citizens of the world. But however this may be, the pupil should keep in mind the prominence of the idea of fate among the Romans, for otherwise he will lose much of the real meaning of the Aeneid.

Especially is this true when we regard the character of Aeneas. His submission to the decrees of fate and the *sic placitum* of Jupiter makes him something of a puppet, not the free, red-blooded hero of modern stories. But if we put ourselves at the Roman point of view, he may still appear as a hero. He is a hero because, forsaking personal fortune, he seeks through struggle to found a state and its accompanying religion. He sought the common weal and not private wealth. It all involves a conception of the state quite remote from our own but one with which we need to become familiar.

Yet while we are not to expect too much of Aeneas as an individual, it is an error to say that fate has completely engulfed his personality. In the opening line the poet announces his purpose to sing the *man*, though it immediately appears that he is subject to fate. There are many indications which, while not leading to a perfect delineation, yet make Aeneas, the man of flesh and blood, stand forth in the clear light apart from the enshrouding mist of destiny. So we interpret his wish when storm-tossed on the sea that he might have perished before the eyes of his parents under the lofty walls of Troy; or when afflicted with mighty cares he feigns a hopeful countenance and presses grief deep within his heart; or in his complaint to Venus who denies him the intimacies due between mother and son; or when in most striking contrast to the all-pervasive force of destiny the intensely human note resounds in that unforgettable line:

sunt lacrimae rerum et mentem mortalia tangunt.

A motive worked out more fully in the third book but present also in the first, adding to the attractiveness of the story, at least for Vergil's audience, is the appeal to the interest in geography and adventure. The Romans would have about the same attitude as Aeneas who goes forth at daybreak to see what land it is to which the wind has driven him, to find whether the inhabitants are men or wild beasts, and after exploring all things to report to his comrades. It is this same element of mystery that pervades the Odyssey and adds to its interest. But an important difference be-

tween the Odyssey and the Aeneid is that in the former many of the adventures seem to exist for their own sake without any regard to the end, the return of Odysseus to his home; while in the Aeneid it is this end, namely, the discovery of the promised land, that receives the emphasis, and herein lies a characteristic difference between the adventurous Greek and the law-observing, city-organizing Roman. The Roman attitude may be clearly seen when Aeneas reviews the struggles through which he and his comrades have passed, those with the Scylla and the rocks of the Cyclops, yet the prominent thought lies in the words:

*Tendimus in Latium, sedes ubi fata quietas
Ostendunt; illic fas regna resurgere Troiae.*

There are many similar indications in this first book, but perhaps the best of all is found in the situation that describes Aeneas as wandering in an unknown land and finding a new city in the process of building. While he observes all those interesting operations so dear to the heart of a Roman, he is reminded of his own condition as an exile and cries out, "O happy they whose walls are already arising." Aside from the idea of adventure and the mystery involved in this strange and remote land, aside from the revelation of that motive rising uppermost in the mind of a Roman, the founding of a city, the poet aims in these lines to point out the contrast between the two lots, that of the exile Aeneas and that of Carthage foreordained to be the great enemy of Rome.

WHEN THE DEAD AWAKE

Under this title John Calvin Hanna, State Supervisor of High Schools in Illinois, read an interesting paper at the Illinois Conference held at Urbana in November. Among many inspiring passages is the following paragraph, unusually significant because of the writer's unique opportunity to form impressions which are based upon proper evidence.

"The extraordinary piece of work done by the AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE is bearing fruit. Fewer people groan with lamentations when the word 'Latin' is pronounced. I have no tabulation of statistics to present, but I am confident that when some painstaking student, seeking a master's degree, floods the schools with questionnaires and tabulates the results of his inquiries, it will be shown that a great reaction is advancing, a great awakening is coming to pass. Everybody started to the funeral but the corpse neglected to attend; he wandered away from the line of march. The dead awoke! A renaissance is at hand! The textbook publishers, quick to see the coming changes, are vying with one another to put forth books that shall embody the findings of the League, and these texts are awakening a new interest among boys and girls in the study of Latin."

INTERESTING INFORMATION

It has seemed to the AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE that the year 1930, marking as it does the passage of 2,000 years since the birth of Vergil, will be a fitting time to commemorate in some striking and nationwide way a poet who has meant and still means so much to the world. Miss Anna P. MacVay, one of the Vice-Presidents of the League and Dean at the Wadleigh High School, New York City, has been asked to act as chairman of this project. A detailed outline of proposed activities will appear later in the NOTES. Meanwhile, Miss MacVay will be glad to receive suggestions from all lovers of Vergil as to the procedure best adapted to the end in view. Particularly will she welcome offers of help in the many concrete ways which will suggest themselves as the work proceeds.

The LINGUISTIC SOCIETY OF AMERICA will hold a Linguistic Institute from July 9 to August 17, 1928, at Yale University. Among the courses offered will be Comparative Grammar of Greek and Latin, Greek Dialects, Language of the Homeric Poems, Oscan and Umbrian, Old Latin and its Development into Classical Latin, and Latin Syntax for Teachers. Elementary courses on Latin Word Formation, Latin Words in English, etc., may be organized if sufficient demand appears. For further information write Professor E. H. Sturtevant, Box 1849, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. A most attractive circular is at hand, giving detailed outlines of the courses. Most secondary teachers will welcome an elementary course in Latin word formation and English derivatives in general which will equip them for their work with pupils.

In adding to the Latin library shelves, teachers will do well to consider the small volumes which appear from time to time in the series known as "Our Debt to Greece and Rome," published by Longmans, Green and Company of New York. Those which have been found especially helpful in concrete ways are listed below, although the scholarly-minded teacher will enjoy many of the others. By sending for a catalogue he can select titles which appeal to him. Number 3 sells for \$2.00. The price of each of the others is \$1.75.

1. Roman Private Life and Its Survivals, by *Walton Brooks McDaniel*
2. Roman Politics, by *Frank Frost Abbott*
3. Warfare on Sea and Land, by *Eugene S. McCartney*
4. Cicero and His Influence, by *John C. Rolfe*
5. Language and Philology, by *Roland C. Kent*
6. Ovid and His Influence, by *Edward K. Rand*
7. Virgil and His Meaning to the World of Today, by *John William Mackail*
8. Modern Traits in Old Greek Life, by *Charles Burton Gulick*

The SCHOOL REVIEW contains in its October issue an article entitled "Evolution of Latin Teaching," by Clyde R. Jeffords, Head of Classical Department in the Newtown High School, New York City.

AMERICAN EDUCATION entitles its December issue "A Junior High School Number." Those who are seeking information regarding the ideals and procedure in leading junior high schools will find several of the articles very interesting. This periodical may be secured by writing to 12 Huntington Ave., Boston, Mass.

The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, have recently published a most attractive small book containing a translation of the Odyssey by Robert H. Hiller. This sells for 88 cents.

The annual meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South will take place in Nashville, Tenn., on April 5-7. No Latin teacher can afford to miss this conference.

The set of lantern slides entitled "Caesar and Modern Warfare," contributed to the SERVICE BUREAU by Professor Benjamin D'Ooge of Ypsilanti, Michigan, may be borrowed from the BUREAU. The fact that orders for this sometimes accumulate for several months ahead shows how greatly teachers appreciate this opportunity to borrow slides. Who will follow Professor D'Ooge's example and contribute one or more sets dealing with any phase of Roman life?

Huelsen's new book entitled "The Forum and the Palatine," translated by Helen Tanzer, Associate Professor of Classics at Hunter College, New York,

is now ready. A. Bruderhausen, 47 West 47th Street, N. Y., is the publisher. Price \$3.50. Secondary Latin teachers as well as college instructors will find this a most interesting book.

THE REPORT CARD

I teach in the William McGuffey School at Miami University, and have classes in both junior and senior high school. In the junior high school classes, particularly, we are trying to formulate a report card that will not simply give one final grade in Latin, but will indicate to the pupil and his parents just where the weaknesses lie, and will make clear the different factors that help to compose the grade in Latin. For instance, a pupils' grade in translation may depend on his knowledge of forms or vocabulary, or perhaps on his ability to apply this knowledge in getting the thought of a passage. It may be true that he has the thought but lacks ability to express it in good English.

We are finding it a very interesting study to analyze our own grades, and to determine the relative value of the various factors. I think other schools may have worked farther along this line than we have, and I should be very much interested to know of any records of their findings on this problem. I should be glad to exchange experiences with other teachers who are following this line of study.

ANNABEL CATHCART
Oxford, Ohio.

ADDING TO ONE'S KNOWLEDGE OF LATIN

We hear much in these days about "adult education," a term which is meant to imply that one's education should not be supposed to end with his college course but that it should rather be regarded as a process which is to be systematically carried on by an individual throughout his entire life. Applying this thought to Latin teachers, and for the moment confining "education" to his study of the classics, it might be helpful to younger persons to know by just what means the mature teacher has added to his equipment for the teaching of Latin, outside of his classroom work. Perhaps the following summary may prove suggestive:

1. By occasionally reading Latin and Greek authors not commonly met with in the high school course
2. By reading more or less widely in translations, especially in the Loeb library series
3. By reading from time to time a few of the newer books dealing with Roman life and history
4. By reading articles bearing upon the knowledge side as they appear in periodical literature
5. By undertaking a project in connection with any one phase of Latin study requiring research with no end in view other than personal satisfaction or an opportunity to contribute something of value to the cause of the classics
6. By attending summer sessions in universities or colleges
7. By listening to lectures at classical meetings and by occasionally appearing on a program
8. By travel in classical countries, especially Italy, Greece, and Sicily, and by visiting museums and Roman remains in other countries
9. By spending a year or at least a summer in study at the American Academy in Rome

It goes without saying that many teachers are too overburdened with work to carry on any systematic study outside of their daily preparations for the classroom. But even under these conditions, something may be accomplished each year if the desire is strong enough.

The SERVICE BUREAU plans to supplement item No. 2 a little later by giving concrete suggestions as

to the choice of volumes. Meanwhile, readers may secure a catalogue from G. P. Putnam's Sons, 2 West 45th St., New York City.

LATIN TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

By MATTHEW H. WILLING, University of Wisconsin

Read at the UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS CONFERENCE in November

If you desire to become more thoroughly informed on the subject of testing in high school Latin than you are now or than you are likely to be even after the next twenty minutes, proceed as follows: First, read all that that modern gospel of pedagogical classicism, the REPORT OF THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION, has to say about testing, about objectives, and about the relation of methods to objectives. This I suppose you have already done from your youth up. Next, read the chapters on language testing and new-type tests in Ruch and Stoddard's TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL INSTRUCTION (World Book Company) and in Symond's MEASUREMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (Macmillan). Then pursue your inquiries into the commercial standardized tests of Latin, such as those published by the Public School Publishing Company, the World Book Company, and the University of Iowa Extension Division. Finally, consult Professor W. S. Monroe's Illinois University Bulletin on WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS AND THEIR IMPROVEMENT (University of Illinois, Bureau of Educational Research, Bull. No. 9), G. M. Ruch's THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE WRITTEN EXAMINATION (Scott Foresman and Company), and D. G. Paterson's PREPARATION AND USE OF NEW-TYPE EXAMINATIONS (World Book Company). If after these labors you feel like getting into the swim, discard what experience and habit you can and plunge in. You will not drown, no matter how much you sputter.

My own indebtedness to the above sources is not small. It is considerable also to those teachers of Latin in Illinois high schools whom your chairman, Miss Luke, induced to turn in sets of Latin examination questions for my benefit. I received sets from eleven representative high schools in all, making a total of fifty different papers. These sample examinations, together with answers which were submitted at the same time to questions of mine about the purposes, frequency, importance, and marking of the examinations have furnished me with many ideas and have determined the trend of my discussion to a great extent.

A fairly complete treatment of Latin testing might be elaborated under three heads: purposes, content, and construction. In this paper I will touch briefly on the first two and attempt to go into more detail as to the third.

I. **Purposes:** The teachers who answered my question as to the purposes of their Latin examinations listed both general and specific purposes. For general purposes they gave (1) evaluations of pupils' achievement, (2) diagnosis of pupils' abilities, (3) evaluation of teaching, (4) motivation of pupils, (5) contribution to the learning process. I am going to hold to the discussion of examinations for the first two purposes; namely, evaluation of achievement and diagnosis of abilities. The examinations which I received were mostly semester or year finals, and, therefore, stressed what I regard as evaluation of achievement. Diagnostic tests, while not necessarily differing in construction, are not as a rule given at the end of a course. They come earlier and while the work is on.

The specific purposes enumerated in my returns are such as these: to test knowledge of forms, to test ability to translate, to test appreciation of Roman civilization and culture, to test mastery of the content of the authors read, and the like. It is to be expected that the avowed purposes of examinations should correspond closely with the objectives of instruction. It is usually safe, therefore, to judge of the temper and direction of the teaching of a subject from what appear to be the temper and direction of the testing. In the case of these Illinois papers I was not so much interested in verifying this relationship as I was in noting what might be their agreement with the objectives of Latin set forth in the Classical Investigation. I found that agreement much the same in kind and degree as that reported by Pound and Helle in their analysis of 237 test papers for the Classical Investigation. These two students concluded that examination papers in Latin ran somewhat independent of the

declared ultimate objectives of instruction in the subject. They said that very little sight translation was called for, application to English was meagerly represented, reading Latin as Latin was ignored. Emphasis was placed upon review translation, syntax, forms, and composition. My papers from Illinois were of pretty much the same sort with the exception of two or three decidedly untraditional ones and certain sections of others which were excursions into new territory.

II. Content: Doubtless you have at your tongue's end the objectives formulated by the Classical Investigation. Excluding those of an unmeasurable disciplinary or cultural type, we may group the conceivably measurable ones thus:

- I. The reading and understanding of Latin
- II. The consciousness of English-Latin relationships
- III. Cultural and literary appreciation
- IV. Improvement in English
- V. Knowledge of elementary language structure

The first of these, reading and understanding Latin, is called the primary immediate objective, and the others ultimate objectives.

Granting the soundness and authority of these objectives and of the ideas on content and method which accompany them in the Classical Report, I hold that in the case of final evaluation examinations in Latin, the following propositions deserve approval:

1. Term, semester, and year examinations should test as directly as possible the success of pupils in achieving the primary immediate objective of reading and understanding Latin, and the groups of ultimate objectives relating to the connections between English and Latin, cultural and literary appreciation, English applications, and language structure.
2. In such examinations there should be a minimum of translation called for and this as a test of English improvement rather than Latin comprehension.
3. Sight Latin should bulk largest, comprehension being determined by various kinds of thought-content questions.
4. There should be no questions on syntax or forms.
5. There should be no writing of Latin required.
6. A considerable part of such examinations in all years should seek to test the pupil's knowledge of English-Latin relationships; i. e., derivatives, grammar, spelling, phrases.
7. In all years, questions should appear on Roman history, life, and culture.
8. A section, increasing in the successive years, should be devoted to probing literary knowledge and appreciation.

As for the minor or more instrumental objectives, such as vocabulary, syntax, forms, literal translation or construing, the writing of Latin, let these be relegated to the pre-final tests—to the tests for detailed diagnosis or for checking on assignments or units of work.

III. Construction: How shall a satisfactory evaluation test in Latin be constructed? That is, how shall we measure the abilities indicated by the major objectives? As we learn from the study of educational measurement today, all such tests should be reliable, valid, and objective in scoring. To be reliable, measuring consistently in successive applications, they must be long enough to sample fairly each pupil's ability in each division of the test. To be valid, measuring exactly what they purport to measure, they must elicit responses typical of the abilities measured or responses correlating highly with them. To be objective in scoring, eliminating subjective judgment, they must be provided with keys which all markers may use alike. In addition to these scientific requirements, practical considerations suggest economy of time, money, and effort in the preparing, giving, and scoring.

It will not be possible in this paper to take up each of the major objectives and suggest in detail how the corresponding pupil achievement may be reliably, validly, objectively, and economically measured. I shall attempt this only in the case of the primary immediate objective, the ability to read and understand Latin, and shall have to content myself with only a few general comments about the others. The traditional way in which teachers of Latin have measured ability to read and understand Latin has been the translation, either literal or free. This is usually unreliable, because not enough translation can be called for in such examinations. It lacks validity, because the response called for is not typical of the actual reading and under-

standing of Latin. It is almost impossible to make it objective in scoring, although in some of the ninth grade Illinois papers commendable efforts to do so were observed. Finally, it is anything but economical at any stage, except in the initial one of preparing the examination. How then shall the ability to read and understand Latin be measured? By the same means as the ability to read and understand English is today measured. Reading tests show the following varieties of construction: passages to be read silently, followed by questions on facts, relationships, and implications of the content; passages to be read silently, followed by true-false, yes-or-no, or short answer questions on content; passages to be read silently and reproduced in the pupil's own language; passages to be read silently and activities performed as determined by understanding of the content. As yet, there are only a very few tests of these kinds standardized for Latin. The Ullman-Kirby Latin Comprehension Test (Iowa University Extension) offers passages followed by thought-content questions. The White Latin Test (World Book Company) offers sentences followed by four translations, the requirement being to recognize the one that is correct. This type of question occurs in one of the Illinois papers. Excellent tests of comprehension have been prepared in modern foreign languages, notably the Columbia Research Bureau Tests, the American Council Tests, and the Iowa Placement Examinations. In these, comprehension is tested by means of true-false statements in the language measured, and by means of thought-content questions on given passages.

Teachers of Latin are sufficiently competent to make up their own tests of the suggested types to serve their special needs, and will find them not only considerably more reliable than their usual translation tests, but also more indicative of the responses proper to the actual reading of Latin. They are certainly far more objective and economical in scoring. It is true that it takes time and practice to make good examinations of these kinds, but once made they are good for repeated use. Needless to say, if reading ability is to be measured, the passages offered should always be sight passages. About a fifth of the Illinois papers contain sections in which thought questions were asked upon Latin passages, although very few of these passages were new to the pupils. There were two or three instances of questions in which pupils were required to identify the best three or four translations of sentences, or the correct statement bearing upon the passage offered. It is possible to test a pupil's comprehension of a much greater amount of Latin by such means than by translation. Obviously, too, it takes much less time to grade the papers. On every count, these new-type devices for measuring comprehension of Latin are superior to the traditional translation questions.

The second group of objectives which should be represented in the more important evaluation examinations is that of knowledge of English-Latin relationships. In the Illinois papers for the ninth and tenth grades, there appeared a good many questions on the derivation of English words, but in the eleventh and twelfth grades, scarcely any. There were no questions testing the effect of the Latin on English spelling, but these could scarcely be expected to appear in examination papers. There were no questions that I could identify as bearing upon a pupil's realization of the connection between the grammars of the two languages. Personally, I should not be excited over that omission. The matter of the English derivatives is, after all, the most important and should have increased consideration in the examinations. Instead of calling for the derivation of four or five English words, probably twenty or more should be cited in order to get a reasonably reliable measure of a pupil's knowledge. The Stevenson-Coxe Latin Derivatives Test (Public School Publishing Co.) illustrates one way of economizing on time in testing this ability. In this, English words are put in one column and possible Latin originals in another. The examinee indicates by number after each English word its Latin ancestor. In all, sixty English words are offered and the time for the test is fifteen minutes. Quite applicable here is the multiple choice type of question, in which the pupil checks the right original, or the right derivative among several. If a knowledge of derivation is as important as Latin teachers seem to think, the absence of questions on it in the examinations of the eleventh and twelfth years is peculiar. One would expect to find even more attention to this matter in these years than in the beginning years.

Cultural and literary appreciation must also be measured in evaluation examinations. In the Illinois papers a fair amount of attention is given to this in the last three years, but exceedingly little in the first year, where certainly it is no less an important objective. Economy and objectivity of measurement is to be obtained here by use of the new-type questions: the true-false, best answer, short answer, and the like, in place of the *discuss*, *relate*, *compare*, *tell*, *show*, *state*, *give an account* questions ordinarily appearing.

The improvement of pupils' abilities in the use of English is listed as one of the principal objectives of Latin instruction, but it is one that is rarely measured in any specific way in Latin examinations. Very likely it would be better to plan special examinations for this objective in co-operation with the English department than to attempt it alone.

The literature of the testing of English is to be consulted for adequate methods for doing this. Speaking, reading, and writing, all should come in for investigation. One type of question may very well be introduced into the Latin evaluation examination to measure improvement in English composition, and that is our old friend "translation." Sight passages of Latin, short and involving no new or unfamiliar problems of reading and comprehension, may be offered, and the pupils directed to translate into the best possible English. While, of course, faithfulness to the ideas of the original must be considered in marking the answers, chief attention should be paid to the quality and the correctness of the English. Except as regards the mechanics, no very objective scheme for the scoring of such English translation has so far been devised. Composition scales may be used, but they are very crude as measuring instruments. Miss Woodring, in a study of College Board papers in Latin, attempted to measure composition merit of translations in this way and by comparison with model translations prepared by experts. Her techniques are interesting, but not very practical for the teacher on the job. At any rate, here is the one good justification for translation in the final examinations. If care is taken to systematize the marking as much as possible, such questions may be very valuable for the purpose stated.

The fifth major objective, a knowledge of the general principles of language structure, was not represented in the Pound-Helle papers of any year. I found no questions in the Illinois papers that I could be sure were intended for measuring this knowledge. The CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION REPORT is not very clear as to what this objective means, beyond what is implied in the English-Latin relations objective. Apparently, however, what is in mind is the generalization of Latin syntax, elementary philology, I suppose. As to the types of questions that would measure this objective reliably, validly, and economically, I have no suggestions at present. I should think here would be a good problem for experimentally-minded teachers.

So much for the types of questions that one would expect to see in the modern evaluation test in Latin. Besides the emphasis on the reading and understanding of sight Latin, the appreciation of English-Latin connections, the improvement of English, the appreciation of classical culture and literature, and the knowledge of elementary language structure, one would expect these tests to be characterized by length considerably in excess of that at present. A test made up along the lines I have suggested, to be given in a sixty minute period, would be greatly superior to one of the traditional type taking the same time, but it probably should be long enough to take two or three times sixty minutes, and probably should be given on two or three different days. Certainly this is true for a final semester or year examination which is to count definitely in making up the promotion grade. Such examinations cannot be constructed, of course, a few minutes before they are to be given. They require hours of rather intensive work and need to be started long before the day of use. They cannot be written on the board or dictated; they must be duplicated, mimeographed, or printed. They are so valuable, once perfected, that they must be kept for future use; consequently, great care has to be exercised to keep them out of circulation between times. No teacher is likely to be able to prepare a complete set in a year, but gradually over a period of years she should be able to accumulate respectable batteries of them and be able through them to check up on her work far more accurately and fully than by means of the old style examinations.

And now, what about the testing of the more immediate

objectives which are instrumental to the major objectives just considered? I have referred to the devices for this as diagnostic tests, for such I think they should be. While a knowledge of Latin syntax, forms, or vocabulary need not be measured in semester or year examinations, such knowledge does need to be tested rather frequently, and just as reliably, validly, objectively, and economically as the ultimate abilities. It is basic, of course, to a reading and understanding of Latin, to English-Latin relationships, and to general language structure. A teacher needs to know what command her pupils individually have of these various elements, not in order to make up grades, but in order to adapt the work to each one's needs. The pupil also is interested in these examinations, not because they are to be made the basis of grades, but because they reveal to him his particular weaknesses and strengths, and give him clues as to relative emphases in study. They should be constructed so as to promote this self-discovery and analysis most effectively. Diagnostic vocabulary tests should reveal the actual words that pupils do not know, not simply whether pupils are weak or strong in vocabulary. Syntax tests should tell what relationships of the language pupils do not yet know, not merely whether they are weak or strong in syntax. Form tests should show what forms need drill, not merely that pupils score high, or low, or average. Furthermore, it is required of such tests that they employ functional situations so far as possible, in order to insure their validity and to direct pupils to right methods of study. Thus, other things being equal, a pupil's identification of the meanings of Latin words in context is to be preferred to his identification of them in lists. A pupil's use of the right syntactical constructions either in writing Latin, or in completing Latin sentences, is likely to prove a more valid measure of his knowledge than the giving of rules, or the explanation of constructions in given Latin passages. A pupil's knowledge of Latin forms is also more validly tested if he is required to use the forms in composition exercises, or in the completion of a Latin test. The giving of synopses or named forms or complete conjugations or declensions is not functional in the light of accepted Latin values.

Reliability in these tests is secured by multiplying the number of instances. Objectivity is obtained by means of keys. Economy is to be achieved here probably only at some cost to validity. For example, it is economical of time to give a meaning of a word from several suggestions, but such a test is not functional. One has to balance the respective advantages of validity on the one hand and of economy on the other, and make his own decision. The same situation obtains in the measurement of formal abilities in English, where truly economical functional types of measurement take excessive amounts of time. Proof-reading tests in punctuation, grammar, word use, and sentence structure in English do not call for the same activities as actually writing English, but their case of application is such that we are bound to use them. In Latin, good illustrations of the specialized kinds of tests we are considering are the following: Part 1 of the White Latin Test, on vocabulary (multiple choice); the Godsey Latin Composition Test, with English sentences followed by incomplete Latin equivalents and suggested forms to choose from in completing, and a list of syntactical rules to connect up with each usage; the Stevenson Latin Vocabulary Test, giving, as in his derivatives test, two columns of words, one English and one Latin, to match up; the Pressey Latin Forms Test, giving Latin forms followed by four English forms, only one of which is correct; the Pressey Latin Syntax Test, giving short English sentences and four alternative Latin translations, from which to choose the correct one; the vocabulary parts of the Henmon Tests, giving merely columns of Latin words to be translated. The Columbia Research Tests for the modern foreign languages contain certain of the above types and also grammar sections calling for the filling in, without suggestion, of incomplete translations of English sentences. Three of the Illinois papers contain a splendid type of question for either syntax or forms testing. Pupils are directed to write the Latin for single underscored words in English sentences. For example: "The soldier wounded *himself*." Diagnostic tests undoubtedly should be as comprehensive as they can be made, should be capable of pupil checking, and should, of course, be made the basis of remedial work or special individual attention. I think that, as a rule, they should not be taken into account in the making up of term or semester grades.

In conclusion, I should like to indicate what in my opinion would constitute a full program of tests and examinations in Latin. My recommendations are determined by my thought of Latin as a subject in which daily preparation is highly essential, especially at first, in which details accumulate rapidly and almost overwhelmingly, in which pupils are likely to overlook important things, to overemphasize certain elements and underemphasize others, to fall into bad habits of study, and to grow hazy about their progress. I would give the following types of tests:

1. Tests at the opening of the semester of diagnostic type and content, that is, dealing with the instrumental values of syntax, inflection, and vocabulary.
2. Almost daily five or ten minute tests on points of the day's work if daily lessons are assigned. Such tests would be like the evaluation or the diagnostic ones in type but brief enough to be dictated or written on the board. They would be scored by the pupils, and would serve partly as checks on preparation and partly as motivating and informing devices for the benefit of the pupils.
3. A series of diagnostic tests at least once within each marking period, covering the basic matters of vocabulary, syntax, and forms. These would be for analysis of pupils' needs and probably would not count in making up grades.
4. Evaluation tests at the end of every marking period, semester, and year, measuring the major objectives. Such tests would eventually become perfected sufficiently to determine very largely the pupils' final marks.
5. Occasional, annual or biennial, tests in English abilities, given in cooperation with the teachers of English.

Prognostic testing also deserves mention, for it too is a developing procedure. The very ingenious and apparently very useful test known as the Orleans-Solomon Latin Prognosis Test (World Book Company) illustrates what may be done in this direction.

So much testing undoubtedly impresses some teachers as intolerable. They think it reduces the teacher to the status of a comptometer, whereas we all know she ought to be a stimulating, vibrant, sympathetic, miracle-working apostle of classical culture, inspiring youth with passionate love for the glory and beauty that was Rome and with an absorbing devotion to her imperial language. As a matter of fact, I maintain that one of the important reasons why teachers of Latin, like teachers of English, have not done a more inspirational job than they have done in the past is that they have not systematized the routine and basic activities of teaching sufficiently to leave them time and energy to do what, I am free to admit, is the big and desirable thing, cultivate real and lasting appreciations. My proposals are designed to eliminate waste in the teaching of the intrinsically unattractive but necessary elements of the language, to induce the pupils to accept the more ultimate objectives, and to afford more opportunity for the live teaching of a language whose death has at times been prematurely reported.

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THE VALUE OF PHONETIC LAWS

Quotation from an article by E. H. STURTEVANT, Yale University, published in the Classical Journal, January, 1928.

History and especially prehistory are possibly the greatest gainers from scientific etymology. There is space for only a few illustrations. From the study of phonetic laws we have learned that Latin was originally the language of the city of Rome, not, as so often stated, the language of Latium. The scanty remains of the other dialects of that region are enough to show that other phonetic laws prevailed in them. We can furthermore detect in Latin itself a large number of loans from these rural dialects—loans which are instructive as to the influence of the surrounding communities upon early Roman civilization. We will pause merely to notice a few obviously rural words whose form betrays that they were not originally Latin. *Bos*, "cow," and *burdo*, "mule," would have initial *v* if they were genuine Latin words. *Scrofa*, "sow," and *bufo*, "toad," contain medial *f*, which is always a mark of dialectic origin. *Anser*, "goose," lacks an initial *h*. *Fenum*, "hay," and *sepes*, "hedge," would have *ae* in their first syllable if they were at home in the city. *Iuencus*, "bullock," does not change *e* before velar *n* to *i* according to the Latin rule. Other words of this same sort may be found in A. Ernout, *Les Éléments Dialectaux du Vocabulaire Latin*, Paris, 1909.

One of the most brilliant and far-reaching of the discoveries yet made in the field of prehistory is the original identity of the Indo-European languages. A majority of the languages spoken in Europe during the historical period and also the Indian, Iranian, Armenian, and Phrygian languages of Asia can, with the help of the phonetic laws, be traced to a common ancestral language. The Indo-European community, which used the parent speech, cannot have persisted later than about 2500 B. C., and it may have broken up a thousand or more years earlier than that. We cannot yet say where this community lived, but the application of the method we have been discussing to the new materials now coming to light may soon settle the question.